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Flame-made WO₃/TiO₂ nanoparticles: Relation between surface acidity, structure and photocatalytic activity

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Abstract

 WO_3/TiO_2 composite nanoparticles have been synthesized by dissolving W and Ti precursors in a suitable solvent and spraying into a high temperature acetylene-oxygen flame using a reactive atomizing gas. Particles with controlled W:Ti ratios were produced at various flow rates of precursor solution and the resulting powders were characterized by Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area analysis, X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), Raman and attenuated total reflection infrared (ATR-IR) spectroscopy. Two-dimensional coordinatively unsaturated wolframyl species were well dispersed on the TiO_2 surface for the samples with equal to or less than 3.6 mol% WO_3 and contributed to an increase of the surface acidity. Crystalline WO_3 was formed for samples with >3.6 mol% WO_3 . Formation of crystalline WO_3 is attributed to the enhanced rate of condensation of W species with increasing loading of tungsten. Variation of λ (defined as the ratio of the actual oxygen-to-fuel ratio of the reactants to the stoichiometric oxygen-to-fuel ratio) influences the residence time of the particles in the high temperature flame and affects the type of surface species and thereby the resultant acidity. The photocatalytic activity of the composite particles was tested for the degradation of methylene blue (MB) and was compared with that of commercial Degussa P25- TiO_2 . The improved photocatalytic activity of the composite particles is attributed to the increased surface acidity and better charge separation due to the coupling of WO_x species and TiO_2 within the composite nanoparticles.

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1. Introduction

Among the various nanocrystalline photocatalytic materials that have been studied over the last 30 years, research has mainly focused on titanium dioxide (titania, TiO₂) as photocatalyst in diverse areas ranging from water and air treatment to self cleaning surfaces. In the past years TiO₂ has been modified to suit various applications. WO₃/TiO₂ has been successfully tested for selective catalytic reduction (SCR) of NO_x in lean exhaust gases

Abbreviations: FSS, flame spray synthesis; PCA, photocatalytic activity; TTIP, titanium tetraisopropoxide; AMT, ammonium metatungstate; DMF, dimethyl formamide; CED, combustion enthalpy density; SSA, specific surface area; MCT, mercury–cadmium–telluride; MB, methylene blue; FWHM, full width at half maximum; HyCOM, hydrothermal crystallization in organic media.

of automobiles to meet the stringent emission standards for both NO_x and particulate matter [1–3]. SiO₂/TiO₂ exhibits super hydrophilic properties which makes it an ideal material for antifogging and self cleaning surfaces such as for window glasses, automobile mirror wind shields, etc. [4]. Numerous papers have appeared on the fundamentals of pure titania systems; the mechanisms of oxidation and the ways to improve its photocatalytic activity (PCA) have been investigated in detail [5–9]. The improvement of the PCA of TiO₂ has been achieved by coating with noble metals such as Ag [10], Au [11], Pt [12], Pd [13] which can trap the electrons facilitating an effective charge separation. Complementary to metal/TiO₂ photocatalysts, TiO₂ has been coupled with other semiconductors such as SnO₂ [14– 17] which can induce effective charge separation by trapping photogenerated electrons. The PCA of metal/metal oxide modified TiO₂ photocatalysts can be further improved if the metal/metal oxide adsorbs more pollutant along with the function

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of electron trapping. Unfortunately, deposited metal particles only serve as electron trapping agent and are not effective to enhance the adsorption of the pollutants. TiO₂ coupled with other semiconductors has been reported to perform both the abovementioned functions. This has been realized by coupling the WO₃ semiconductor with TiO₂. As a basic function, WO₃ has a suitable conduction band potential to allow the transfer of photogenerated electrons from TiO₂ facilitating effective charge separation. Additionally, formation of a monolayer of WO_x species on TiO₂ can significantly increase the surface acidity as WO₃ is 15 times more acidic than TiO₂ [18]. Because of this increased acidity WO₃/TiO₂ can adsorb more hydroxyl groups and simultaneously more organic reactants on its surface. Thus, significant improvement of the PCA has been achieved in comparison to the standard commercial photocatalysts. To date. WO₃/TiO₂ has been synthesized by sol–gel [19,20], ball milling [21], incipient wetness impregnation [22,23] and multiple grafting [24]. Thin films of WO₃/TiO₂ have also been produced by dip coating [25] and spin coating [26]. Kwon et al. [18] produced WO₃/TiO₂ by wetness impregnation method which includes the suspension of pure TiO₂ powder in a dilute ammonia solution mixed with the required amount of H₂WO₄ to adjust the concentration of WO₃. The resultant powder was then calcined at 400 °C for 2 h. Acidity increased with increasing amount of WO₃ and reached a maximum value for a WO3 concentration of 3.2 mol%. A further increase in WO₃ concentration did not have any influence on the acidity of WO₃/TiO₂ composite particles. Interestingly, the PCA also followed the same hysteresis as the acidity dependence. Song et al. [23] reported similar results and in addition showed that the stability of the colloidal suspensions of WO₃/TiO₂ was enhanced compared to that of TiO₂ owing to the increased surface acidity. Li et al. [19] synthesized the WO₃/ TiO₂ by sol-gel process using ethanol solutions of Ti(O-Bu)₄ and aqueous solutions of ammonium metatungstate. The resultant amorphous WO_x-TiO₂ gel was calcined at 973 K for 2 h to produce crystalline WO₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites. The isoelectric point of the resulting 3 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ composite was found to be at pH 5.0 compared to pH 6.40 for TiO₂. This difference in the isoelectric point can greatly enhance the absorption of organic components on the WO_x/TiO₂ photocatalysts.

All the mentioned synthesis routes involve several process in order to improve the crystallinity of the as-synthesized amorphous particles. In this study, the WO₃/TiO₂ particles have been synthesized in a single step using the flame spray synthesis (FSS). The concentration of tungsten oxide has been varied in order to produce particles with improved surface acidity and acid strength. As the particle formation takes place at high temperatures in the flame, the resultant powder has a high crystallinity and does not need any further post treatment.

2. Experimental procedure

2.1. Apparatus

Fig. 1 shows the schematic of the experimental set-up of the FSS. It consists of three syringe pumps to feed the precursor and

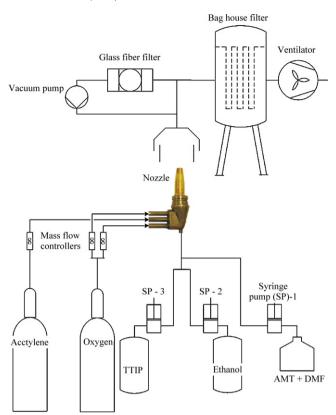


Fig. 1. Experimental set-up for the synthesis of WO_3/TiO_2 nanocomposites by flame spray synthesis (FSS) [titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP), ammonium metatungstate (AMT), dimethyl formamide (DMF)].

solvent mixtures, an external mixing gas-assisted nozzle and the powder collection unit. Liquid precursor and solvent are stored in separate vessels and both are mixed externally in controlled amounts by adjusting their flow rates with the syringe pumps. The nozzle consists of a central opening (2.8 mm), where a capillary tube (1.05 and 1.59 mm internal and external diameter, respectively) is incorporated and through which the precursor mixture is fed to the flame. The spacing between the capillary tube and central opening is used to feed the atomizing gas (oxygen) that forms a fine spray of the liquid precursor mixture. The spray is ignited by six supporting premixed flamelets produced by C₂H₂ (13 l/min) and O₂ (17 l/ min). The openings (1.3 mm) of the supporting flames are located at 3.25 mm from the centre of the nozzle. All gas flow rates are controlled by the mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst HI-TEC). Due to the high exit velocities of the process gases, particles are collected in a bag house filter (Friedli, Switzerland) and representative samples of about 1 g are collected on a glass fiber filter (Type GF50, Schleicher and Schuell, Germany), via a by-pass, using vacuum pumps.

As a precursor source of TiO_2 , titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP, $Ti(C_3H_7O)_4$, purity > 99%, VWR International) dissolved in ethanol (99.9% absolute, Fluka AG) was used. Ammonium metatungstate (AMT, $(NH_4)_6H_2W_{12}O_{40}(H_2O)_x$, 99.9%, ABCR) was used as the precursor source for WO₃ and was dissolved in dimethyl formamide (DMF, C_3H_7NO , 99%, ABCR). A 2 M solution of TTIP was prepared and AMT dissolved in different amounts of DMF (0.02 M) was added at a

controlled rate to adjust the tungsten oxide concentration from 1.8 to 9.1 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 . The combustion enthalpy density (CED) in this study is defined as the ratio of the total liquid precursor mixture plus acetylene—oxygen (ethanol, TTIP, DMF, AMT, C_2H_2 and O_2) combustion enthalpy to the total gas flow in the system. Changing the combustion enthalpy density is associated with the variation of oxygen concentration and combustion stoichiometry (lambda, λ) in the process. Lambda is defined as the ratio of the actual oxygen-to-fuel ratio of the reactants to the stoichiometric oxygen-to-fuel ratio and was calculated as 10, 4 and 1.3 associated with the combustion enthalpy densities of 9.2, 10.3 and 14.3 kJ/g_{gas}, respectively.

2.2. Characterization

2.2.1. BET, XRD, TEM, Raman and ATR-IR spectroscopy

The specific surface area (SSA) of the product powder was determined from a five-point N_2 adsorption isotherm obtained from Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) measurements using a Beckman-Coulter SA3100. Prior to BET analysis, the powder samples were degassed at 200 °C for 180 min under flowing N_2 atmosphere to remove adsorbed H_2O from the surface.

The primary particle size, shape and morphology of the particles were investigated by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Powder samples were dispersed in isopropanol (purity > 99.5%, Fluka, Switzerland) and a few drops of the dispersion were allowed to dry on carbon-coated copper grids (Plano GmbH, Germany). The TEM analysis was performed on a Philips CM30 electron microscope operating at 200 kV.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used for identification of the crystal phases. Diffraction measurements were performed with a PANalytical PW 3040/60 X'Pert PRO instrument using Ni-filtered Cu K α radiation of wavelength 1.5418 Å. A 2θ scan range from 5 to 80° , a scanning step size of 0.01° and a scintillation counter detector was used. Curve fitting and integration was carried out using proprietary software from Philips X'Pert high score plus.

Raman spectra were obtained in backscattering geometry using a Renishaw Ramascope 2000 (Renishaw plc, Gloucestershire, UK) with a spectral resolution of 1 cm $^{-1}$. The 633 nm line of the HeNe-laser was focused on the samples through $50\times$ objective of the microscope, the laser beam power on the sample being 0.5 mW. The samples were investigated at room temperature.

Thin particulate films were prepared for the determination of acidity using attenuated total reflection infrared spectroscopy (ATR-IR) from a suspension of the corresponding material (10 mg) in water (1.5 ml, for chromatography). The suspension was deposited on a trapezoidal Ge internal reflection element (IRE) (52 mm \times 20 mm \times 2 mm, bevels of 45°) and the solvent evaporated in air. After deposition, the coated IRE was mounted within the walls of a home-made infrared cell. ATR-IR measurements were performed by admitting a cyclohexane solution of pyridine (1 mM) saturated with nitrogen over the thin film after stabilization of the IR signal by flowing N_2 -saturated solvent. Adsorption was followed for 1 h, after which time N_2 -saturated solvent was again admitted

to the cell to follow desorption for ca. 30 min. Solutions were pumped through the cell by means of a peristaltic pump at ca. 0.6 ml/min flow rate. All measurements were carried out at 30 °C on a Bruker IFS 66 spectrometer equipped with a liquid nitrogen cooled mercury–cadmium–telluride (MCT) detector by accumulating 200 scans at 4 cm⁻¹ resolution. Spectra were corrected by water vapor phase where required. Acidity is given as the ratio between the integrated areas of the signals at 1540 and 1445 cm⁻¹ characteristic of Brønsted and Lewis acid sites, respectively defined as $C_{\rm B}/C_{\rm L}$. The last spectrum recorded during desorption was used for integration. Signal integration was performed with the OPUS vs. 3.1 software.

The PCA of the as-synthesized powders was evaluated by the degradation of the standard pollutant, methylene blue (MB). Details of the photochemical reactor have been reported elsewhere [15]. Samples for UV–vis spectroscopy were filtered through 0.2 µm Whatman Anotop 10 membrane filters to remove the photocatalyst particles before analysis. Calibration of the absorbance at 660 nm against MB concentration (Lambert-Beer) was carried out for quantification of the PCA.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Physical properties of WO₃/TiO₂

Pure TiO₂ and WO₃ appear physically in white and yellow color, respectively. But the color of the WO₃/TiO₂ powders synthesized at λ of 10 are light yellow and those produced at λ of 4 and 1.3 are pale blue in color. On the other hand, particles synthesized with 9.1 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ at lambda 4 and 1.3 have vivid blue color. Yellow color is indicative of stoichiometric WO₃ in which W has valency of 6⁺. The appearance of blue color is evidence for the presence of W⁶⁺ and W⁵⁺ in equilibrium and might have formed due to the decreasing oxidizing potential of the flame with decreasing value of λ . With increasing concentration of tungsten, its complete oxidation is inhibited because of the shorter residence time of the particles in the flame due to increased total precursor flow rate.

3.2. N₂ physisorption measurement (BET)

Fig. 2 shows the SSA of the WO₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites synthesized as a function of CED of the process. Irrespective of the concentration of WO₃, the SSA of the WO₃/TiO₂ particles decreased with increasing CED. The temperature of the flame increases with the increasing CED [27]. An increase in the flame temperature and combustion enthalpy density enhances the sintering rate of the particles facilitating them to grow to large sizes and concomitantly decrease the SSA. This is similar to the conventional flame aerosol process where the surface area of the particles decreases with increasing temperature as reported by several authors [28,29]. It is also in agreement with other FSP studies reported earlier [30,31].

Addition of WO₃ increases the SSA of the resultant WO₃/ TiO₂ particles in comparison to pure TiO₂. Crystalline WO₃ particles did not form at low concentrations (<3.6 mol%) of tungsten (will be shown in Section 3.5), instead, amorphous WO_x

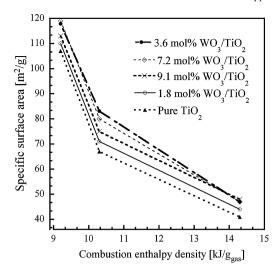


Fig. 2. Specific surface area (SSA) of the WO_3/TiO_2 nanocomposites synthesized with various concentrations of WO_3 .

species deposited on the surface of TiO_2 particles. Growth of the TiO_2 particles takes place in the flame by coagulation and coalescence mechanisms. Formation of the thin layer of WO_x species, at low concentrations of tungsten, partially prevents the growth between the TiO_2 particles thus leading to increased SSA of the resultant WO_x/TiO_2 particles. Crystalline WO_3 particles tend to form with increasing tungsten concentrations and the SSA of the resulting WO_3/TiO_2 particles decreases. This observed decrease in the SSA is solely due to the higher density of tungsten in relation to titanium as little or no variation is observed in the $d_{\rm BET}$ values of the respective powders.

3.3. X-ray diffraction

Fig. 3 shows the XRD patterns of the 3.6 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ particles as a function of the CED. Predominantly, the anatase phase is observed in all the samples with a minute fraction of

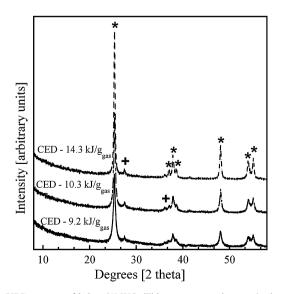


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of 3.6 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites synthesized with increasing CED values. Symbols (\bigstar) and (+) indicate the anatase and rutile phases, respectively.

rutile. The main reflection of anatase is observed at $2\theta = 25.4^{\circ}$. The full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the reflection, which is the characteristic of the crystallite size of the corresponding phase, decreases with increasing CED and corresponds to the increase of the crystallite size. This agrees well with the BET results which showed decrease of the SSA with increase in the CED value. Few authors reported that the addition of tungsten increases the thermal stability of TiO2 and stabilizes the anatase phase [32,33]. However, no reflections corresponding to the formation of mixed oxides of TiO₂–WO₃ or pure WO₃ are seen in the XRD patterns. So, the formation of the TiO₂ anatase phase is associated with the flame spray process parameters as pure TiO₂ produced under similar conditions also showed predominantly anatase phase. The addition of WO₃ did not induce any significant change in the phase composition. The lack of reflections corresponding to WO₃ reveals that it is present either in the form of highly dispersed WO_x clusters or as an amorphous layer on TiO₂ as reported by several authors [18,21] or the concentration of WO₃ is too low for the XRD to reveal.

In contrast, reflections corresponding to crystalline WO_3 are seen in the XRD pattern of nanocomposites synthesized at 9.1 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 (Fig. 4). Engweiler et al. [24] studied the formation of WO_3/TiO_2 composites via multiple grafting procedure by step-wise increase of the concentration of WO_x species and concluded that a highly dispersed amorphous monolayer of WO_x species forms on TiO_2 at low tungsten loading. When the tungsten concentration exceeds over that required for WO_x monolayer formation crystalline WO_3 will form. Similar observations have been made in the present study with the increased concentration of tungsten oxide.

3.4. Transmission electron microscopy

Fig. 5(a and b) shows the TEM images of the 3.6 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 produced at CED of 9.2 and 14.3 kJ/g_{gas} respectively. Particles are spherical in morphology and non-aggregated with a

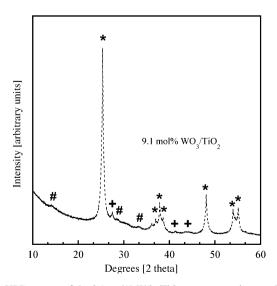
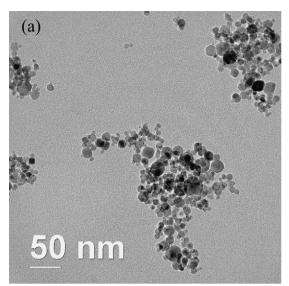


Fig. 4. XRD pattern of the 9.1 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 nanocomposites synthesized with CED of 9.4 kJ/ggas. Symbols (\bigstar) and (+) indicate the anatase and rutile phases, respectively. The symbol (#) indicates the crystalline phase of WO_3 .



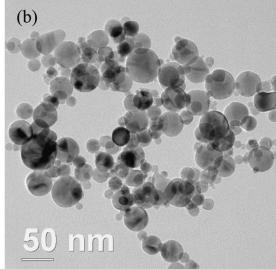


Fig. 5. TEM images of the 3.6 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites synthesized at the CED of (a) 9.2 and (b) 14.3 kJ/g_{gas}

size ranging from 5 to 20 nm and 10 to 50 nm for the CED value of 9.2 and 14.3 kJ/g_{gas}, respectively.

Synthesis of inhomogeneous and hollow particles via FSP has been reported by several authors [31,34,35]. Jossen et al. [36] made a systematic study and proposed that either of the following process parameters have to be met to produce homogeneous and solid particles:

- (1) The combustion enthalpy density of the flame should be >4.7 kJ/g_{gas}.
- (2) The ratio of the boiling point of the solvent $(T_{\rm bp})$ to the decomposition/melting point of the dissolved precursor $(T_{\rm d/mp})$ should be >1.

If the combustion enthalpy density is $<4.7 \text{ kJ/g}_{gas}$, then the ratio of $T_{bp}/T_{d/mp}$ should be >1 and vice versa.

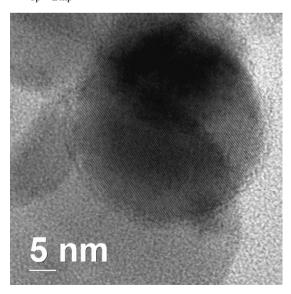


Fig. 6. High resolution image of the 3.6 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 nanocomposite synthesized at the CED of 14.3 kJ/g_{gas}. Lattice spacing indicative of (1 0 1) plane of anatase.

Homogeneous and solid particles are produced in the present study (Figs. 5 and 6). The combustion enthalpy density of the flame with lambda values of 10, 4 and 1.3 is 9.2, 10.3 and 14.3 kJ/ g_{gas} , respectively, and the T_{bp} (ethanol 78.3 °C)/ $T_{d/mp}$ (TTIP 232 °C) ratio is <1. Jossen et al. [36] did not consider the enthalpy of CH₄ and O₂ combustion in their calculation of the total combustion enthalpy density of the flame. This may have to do with the low flow rate of CH₄ (0.5 l/min) and O₂ (2 l/min) used in their study. In the present study higher flow rates of C₂H₂ (13 l/min) and O₂ (17 l/min) are used whose combustion enthalpy rate (-775.5 against -18.9 kJ/min in Jossen's study [36]) cannot be neglected. Though there is a difference in the way the combustion enthalpy density is calculated between the present study and Jossen et al. [36], the criterion of having combustion enthalpy density >4.7 kJ/ g_{gas} to produce solid particles is well supported.

The high resolution image (Fig. 6) of the 3.6 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 particles shows uniform lattice fringes whose spacing corresponds to (1 0 1) planes of anatase phase of TiO_2 and no individual clusters/particles of WO_3 are seen on the surface of TiO_2 . This indicates that the tungsten oxide species might have covered the surface of TiO_2 particles as amorphous layer. This is consistent with the results obtained from the Raman spectroscopy (next section) showing the existence of amorphous WO_x and agrees well with previous reports [18,23].

3.5. Raman spectroscopy

The Raman spectrum of the pure WO₃ powder (Fig. 7) shows sharp signals at 280, 313, 688–717, 817 cm⁻¹ and a very weak peak at 950 cm⁻¹. The signals at 280 and 313 cm⁻¹ correspond to O–W–O bending modes of bridging oxygen, and the signals at 817 cm⁻¹ and in the 688–717 cm⁻¹ range are the corresponding stretching modes. The weak signal at 950 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the terminal W=O bond which forms on tungsten ions with low coordination numbers as in amorphous WO₃ [37]. Rampaul et al. [25] reported the Raman spectrum of sol–gel synthesized WO₃ films and observed a prominent signal

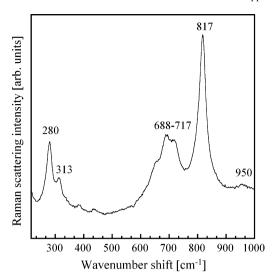


Fig. 7. Raman spectrum of the as-synthesized WO₃ nanopowder. Wavenumbershift is shown on top of the corresponding peak.

at 924 cm⁻¹ corresponding to amorphous WO₃, whereas the Raman peaks corresponding to crystalline WO₃ at 304, 717 and 807 cm⁻¹ appeared less intense. This reveals the less crystalline nature of the sol–gel derived materials unless they are calcined at a sufficiently high temperature. Habazaki et al. [38] reported the Raman spectra of annealed electrodeposited WO₃ films at several temperatures. The intensity of the Raman peaks corresponding to crystalline WO₃ increases with annealing temperature and the most intense peak is positioned at 817 cm⁻¹ which agrees well with the present study.

Fig. 8 shows the Raman spectra of $\overline{WO}_3/\overline{TiO}_2$ samples in the 750–1200 cm⁻¹ spectral range. The spectrum of the 1.8 mol% $\overline{WO}_3/\overline{TiO}_2$ sample (Fig. 8A) shows a relatively weak band centred at 969 cm⁻¹ which can be assigned to the W=O

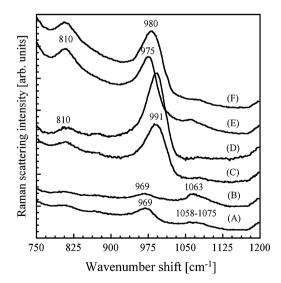
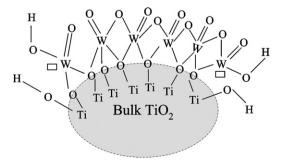


Fig. 8. Raman spectra of the WO₃/TiO₂ nanoparticles synthesized at various concentrations of WO₃ at $\lambda = 1.3$ and 10. The measurements were performed with the narrow wavenumber shift to resolve weak peaks of WO_x species. Spectra A–D correspond to WO₃/TiO₂ particles synthesized at 1.8, 3.6, 7.2 and 9.1 mol% WO₃, respectively at $\lambda = 10$, while spectra E and F correspond to WO₃/TiO₂ particles synthesized at 1.8 and 3.6 mol% WO₃, respectively, at $\lambda = 1.3$.

stretching vibration of surface wolframyl species [39]. This two-dimensional surface tungsten oxide species exists in WO₅ units at this low W concentration and the signal corresponding to the WO_x species in tetrahedral coordination is revealed by the presence of the broad band ranging from 1058 to 1075 cm⁻ [40]. The presence of the very weak signal close to 810 cm⁻¹ suggests that only a very small fraction of the added W contributed to the formation of crystalline WO₃. The Raman stretching frequency of the surface tungsten oxide species for a given support oxide (TiO₂ in this study) depends on the amount of W loading and on the nature of W-O coordination (W-O bond order). Since the high frequency of a given signal reflects a high bond order, i.e. shortest W-O bond in the tungsten oxide species, signals characteristic of tetrahedrally coordinated tungsten oxide species (WO₄) appear at higher wavenumber than octahedral WO₆ species due to the higher bond order of the former [40]. Additionally, the Raman scattering cross-section of tetrahedrally coordinated WO_x species is much higher than that of the octahedrally coordinated type. Hence the presence of tetrahedrally coordinated WOx species can be easily revealed even when present in minute amounts. Based on these considerations, a schematic of surface tungsten oxide species on the TiO₂ support is shown in Scheme 1.

Characterization of Ti(WO₄)₂ type tungsten oxide species by Raman spectroscopy has not been reported in WO₃/TiO₂ literature so far. Bond et al. [41] reported unassigned Raman signals around 1000 cm⁻¹ after increasing the surface area of TiO₂ and concluded that several different surface tungsten oxide species can be formed on high surface area supports compared to low surface area supports. The high SSA of the WO₃/TiO₂ particles reported in this study might be responsible for the WO₄ groups on TiO₂ surface. For the 3.6 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ particles, the characteristic signal of WO₄ slightly narrowed and showed a maximum at 1063 cm⁻¹. No features of crystalline WO₃ are observed indicating that even at 3.6 mol% WO₃ the surface of TiO₂ is populated by two-dimensional tungsten oxide species.

Significant changes occur in the position of the Raman signals with increasing the concentration of WO_3 to 7.2 mol% (Fig. 8C) which do not change at 9.1 mol% WO_3 (Fig. 8D). The signal close to $1060 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ vanishes and a new one appears at $810 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ representative of the O–W–O stretching mode of three-dimensional crystalline WO_3 . In addition, the signal at



Scheme 1. Evolution of WO_x species and acidity on TiO_2 at low concentrations of WO_3 . Rectangles represent the coordinatively unsaturated terminal groups responsible for the Bronsted acidity of WO_3/TiO_2 powder.

969 cm⁻¹ observed in the 1.8 and 3.6 mol% samples is shifted to 991 cm⁻¹ indicating the presence of octahedral WO₆ groups. Vuurman et al. [37] reported a signal at 935 cm⁻¹ for 1 wt% WO_3/TiO_2 that shifted to $\sim 965 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ with increasing the W concentration to 8 wt% corresponding to the formation of a layer of WO₃. Chan et al. [42] reported a signal at 942 cm⁻¹ for 1 wt% WO₃/TiO₂ which shifted to \sim 972 cm⁻¹ at 10 wt% WO₃. Further similar observations have been made for WO_x on alumina [43] and vanadia on titania where the Raman signals shifted with coverage of the surface oxide species from ~965 to 1000 and from \sim 940 to 1000 cm⁻¹, respectively. The observed shift with increasing WO₃ concentration was attributed to the change of coordination in W species to octahedral. Hence, the tungsten oxide species exist in octahedral coordination at high W concentration, which is supported by the absence of the characteristic signals of WO₄ species. Crystalline WO₃ particles also formed with increasing W concentration due to an increased degree of condensation of W species.

The Raman spectra of the WO₃/TiO₂ particles produced at $\lambda = 1.3$ exhibit a significant difference compared to the particles synthesized at $\lambda = 10$ (Fig. 8E and F). For 1.8 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ particles (Fig. 8E), a signal is observed at 975 cm⁻¹ indicative of W=O stretching vibration in surface wolframyl species in which W exists in WO₅ units. A strong signal at 810 cm⁻¹ reveals the presence of a significant fraction of three-dimensional crystalline WO3 that was absent in the particles synthesized at $\lambda = 10$. Decreasing λ increases the residence time of the particles in the flame and concomitantly decreases the specific surface area (44 m²/g at $\lambda = 1.3$ and 110 m²/g at $\lambda = 10$). Decreasing the SSA of the particles results in less surface available for the dispersion of tungsten oxide species. This leads to a decreased spacing between the twodimensional surface tungsten oxide species, which then tend to oligomerize to form three-dimensional crystalline WO₃ particles aided by the increased residence time in the high temperature flame. The weak signal at 1050 cm⁻¹ indicates that a very small fraction of tetrahedrally coordinated tungsten oxide is also present. A coverage dependent shift (from 975 to 980 cm⁻¹) of the signal is observed with increasing WO₃ concentration from 1.8 to 3.6 mol%.

3.6. Surface acidity

The ATR-IR spectra of pyridine adsorbed on pure WO₃, TiO₂ and on WO₃/TiO₂ composite particles are shown in Fig. 9. The signals at 1445, 1490 and 1540 cm⁻¹ are attributed to pyridine adsorbed on Lewis acid sites, on both Lewis and Brønsted sites, and Brønsted acid sites, respectively. The signal at 1570 cm⁻¹ represents physically adsorbed pyridine, whereas hydrogen bonded pyridine with surface OH groups is revealed by the characteristic signals at 1600 and 1625 cm⁻¹. Surface acidity of pure anatase is only of the Lewis type and no signals corresponding to Brønsted acid sites were detected. This is in agreement with Morterra et al. [44] reporting Brønsted acidity for sulphated TiO₂ but only Lewis acidity for TiO₂.

Incorporation of 1.8 mol% WO₃ results in a significant increase of Lewis acidity and in the appearance of Brønsted

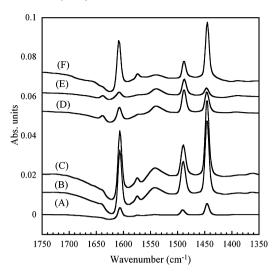


Fig. 9. ATR-IR spectra of WO_3/TiO_2 nanoparticles synthesized at $\lambda=10$ and comparison with TiO_2 (spectrum A) and WO_3 (spectrum F). Spectra B–E correspond to WO_3/TiO_2 particles synthesized at 1.8, 3.6, 7.2 and 9.1 mol% WO_3 , respectively.

acid sites, whereas increasing the WO3 concentration to 3.6 mol% causes only a slight increase in the Brønsted acidity. Hence, both types of acidity co-exist on the WO₃/TiO₂ particles. Raman spectroscopy revealed that at relatively low loadings of WO₃, wolframyl species containing W=O bonds are the dominant and partially covering the TiO₂ surface. These surface tetrahedral wolframyl species are coordinatively unsaturated and act as strong Lewis acid sites [45,46]. Hilbrig et al. [47] reported by XANES study that the tungsten anchored to the surface as branched chains of WO₅ and these chains are terminated by WO₄ units, the relative proportion of which increases with loading before W attains its usual hexavalent coordination. The Brønsted acidity may arise from the coordinatively unsaturated terminal groups in contact with TiO₂ (Scheme 1), and grow in number with increasing Wconcentration.

Although it is not meaningful to quantify surface acidity solely from infrared spectra obtained from pyridine adsorption, since the WO₃/TiO₂ samples produced with $\lambda = 10$ exhibit comparable SSA (ca. 110 m²/g) and so do the samples produced at $\lambda = 1.3$ we can risk a comparison between samples produced at the same λ using both the $C_{\rm B}/C_{\rm L}$ ratio and a qualitative comparison between ATR-IR spectra.

The $C_{\rm B}/C_{\rm L}$ ratio depicted in Fig. 10 suggests that the Brønsted acidity steadily increases with W-concentration and drops dramatically in WO₃. This is also qualitatively demonstrated by intensity of the signal at 1540 cm⁻¹ which is clearly inferior in WO₃ than in the WO₃/TiO₂ samples. This reveals that the interface which develops with W-content develops additional Brønsted acidity to WO₃ that grows until 9.1 mol% and then drops for bulk WO₃.

Fig. 10 shows an abrupt increase in the $C_{\rm B}/C_{\rm L}$ ratio from 3.6 to 7.2 mol% W, which is interpreted as a dramatic decrease in the Lewis acidity and with the formation of a three-dimensional octahedral WO₃-like phase as demonstrated by Raman spectroscopy rather than to a further increase of the Brønsted

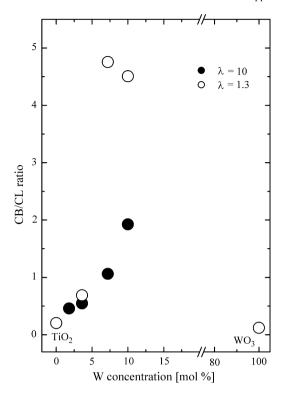


Fig. 10. Ratio of the integrated area of the signals at 1540 ($C_{\rm B}$) and 1445 cm⁻¹ ($C_{\rm L}$) characteristic of Brønsted and Lewis acid sites, respectively, as a function of W-loading for two different lambda values.

acidity. The decrease in the intensity of the signal at 1445 cm^{-1} (Lewis acid sites) in Fig. 9 when increasing the W-content to 7.2 mol% likely supports this interpretation. The surface of the WO₃-like phase is populated predominantly by coordinatively saturated species. The higher $C_{\rm B}/C_{\rm L}$ ratio in the 7.2 mol% sample compared to the 1.8 and 3.6 mol% samples has then to be attributed almost uniquely to a change in the Lewis acidity rather than to Brønsted acidity. This is confirmed by the results in Fig. 10 showing that the Brønsted acidity of the WO₃/TiO₂ particles decreases with increasing λ , which is again in agreement with the Raman spectra.

3.7. Photocatalytic activity

Fig. 11 shows the kinetics of disappearance of MB for pure TiO_2 (Degussa P25) and 3.6 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 powder synthesized at various values of λ . No detectable degradation of MB occurs without TiO_2 or with UV radiation alone. It is obvious from Fig. 11 that the powder (3.6 mol% WO_3/TiO_2) synthesized at λ = 10 shows improved PCA compared to P25- TiO_2 .

The 3.6 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 powder synthesized in the present study at λ value of 10 has a large SSA of $118 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, but the associated crystallinity is much less than $P25\text{-Ti}O_2$. Despite this, it shows better PCA than $P25\text{-Ti}O_2$ which cannot be explained like the strategy (large surface area associated with high crystallinity) followed to synthesize hydrothermal crystallization in organic media (HyCOM) TiO_2 powder [48], which shows higher PCA than $P25\text{-Ti}O_2$. The improved PCA can be

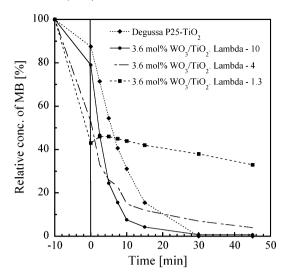


Fig. 11. Comparison of the PCA of the 3.6 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites and Degussa P25-TiO₂. Negative time (-10 min) indicates the period of adsorption of MB in the dark (without illumination).

understood by considering the Langmuir-Hinshelwood kinetic scheme, where the rate of photocatalytic degradation is enhanced when the apparent reaction rate constant and the equilibrium adsorption constant is increased [49]. The apparent reaction rate constant depends on how well the photogenerated charge carriers separate without their recombination. Rothenberger et al. [50] studied the dynamics of charge carrier trapping and recombination with picosecond and nanosecond laser photolysis in an aqueous solution and reported that trapping of conduction band electrons and valence band holes occurs in 30 ps and 250 ns, respectively. Hence, effective electron trapping has to be carried out to prevent recombination with the hole. The rate-determining step for degradation in the slurry based photocatalytic reactors is proved to be the trapping of electrons by oxygen [51]. In a typical TiO₂ particulate system, lots of probable functions are involved for the circulating oxygen to get reduced by the photogenerated electron. Due to this oxygen reacts very slowly with the photogenerated electrons leading to their accumulation and probable recombination with holes that decrease the photocatalytic activity. On the other hand, incorporation of an electron trapping agent on the surface of TiO₂ will trap the electrons much faster than the oxygen and prevent the recombination with the hole. The 3.6 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ composite particles produced in this study at $\lambda = 10$ have a surface layer of WO_x species in which the valence state of W is 6⁺. When pure TiO₂ is illuminated under UV light, the absorption is associated with the $O^{2-} \rightarrow Ti^{4+}$ charge transfer transitions corresponding to the excitation of electrons from the valence band (having the O 2p character) to the conduction band (having the Ti 3d character). Gutiérrez-Alejandre et al. [46] performed the UV-vis absorption measurements on pure TiO2 and WO3/TiO2 particles and found no differences in absorption behavior, indicating that 5d orbitals of W lie into the Ti 3d conduction band so that $O^{2-} \rightarrow W^{6+}$ and $O^{2-} \rightarrow Ti^{4+}$ charge transfer transitions are superimposed. Hence, when WO_r/TiO₂ is illuminated, absorption is associated with the

 $O^{2-} \rightarrow W^{6+}$ transition and the electron is trapped by W^{6+} . Circulating oxygen, as a passive electron trapping agent, is still needed, in spite of the presence of WO_x species as an active electron trap. W^{6+} easily reduces to W^{5+} by electron trapping and the presence of the $W^{6+}-W^{5+}$ pair alters the physical and chemical properties of the reduced WO_x species which has a negative influence on the PCA [22]. The presence of the oxygen oxidizes the W^{5+} back to W^{6+} which can further trap the electron. In this way, WO_x deposited on the TiO_2 surface acts as an electron acceptor in the WO_3/TiO_2 system to increase the apparent rate constant.

The equilibrium adsorption constant is related to the surface characteristics of the photocatalyst, i.e. surface area and affinity of the photocatalyst surface to the pollutant. We have demonstrated that the surface of WO_3/TiO_2 is more acidic than that of TiO_2 . The increased acidity generates a higher affinity of WO_3/TiO_2 for species with unpaired electrons. Because of this, this material can absorb more OH^- or H_2O , which is prerequisite for OH radical formation necessary for photooxidation reactions. Therefore, the combination of improved charge separation (increased apparent rate constant) and affinity to adsorb the pollutant (increased equilibrium adsorption constant) are responsible for the improved PCA of $3.6 \text{ mol}\% WO_3/TiO_2$.

It can be seen from Fig. 11 that the PCA of the 3.6 mol% WO_3/TiO_2 composites decreases with decreasing λ . As mentioned in Section 3.1, the color of the powder turns to blue with decreasing λ , revealing that tungsten has been partially reduced from W^{6+} to W^{5+} . Reduced WO_3 has oxygen vacancies that act as electron donors and are not able to trap electrons due to the repulsive forces. The increase of electron density in reduced WO_3 enhances the electron–hole recombination rate which is detrimental to the PCA. However, high electron density associated with the oxygen vacancies of reduced WO_3 gives rise to negative charge which enhances adsorption of the cationic MB dye. As a consequence, the negative effect of inability to trap electrons by reduced W species dominates the positive influence of adsorption leading to the reduction of the PCA.

MB degradation kinetics of pure WO₃ and WO₃/TiO₂ particles with increasing concentration of WO3 is shown in Fig. 12. 3.6 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ shows improved activity compared to 1.8 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ because of the increased acidity of the former. TiO₂ with 7.2 mol% WO₃ shows much stronger adsorption characteristics due to the presence of separate WO₃ particles that have high acid strength, a trend similar to that of pure WO₃. Several authors have reported the importance of the acid site strength alongside with the amount of acid sites for the catalytic activity. Yamanaka and Tanabe [52] studied the acid site strength of various metal oxides and reported that WO₃ possesses significantly higher acid strength than TiO₂. Though the amount of acid sites is less in 7.2 mol% WO₃/TiO₂, the acid site strength is much higher due to the presence of crystalline WO₃ which accounts for the increased adsorption of MB. Due to this high adsorption, the activity of the 7.2 mol% WO₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites is almost negligible. An improvement of the PCA with optimum amounts of WO₃

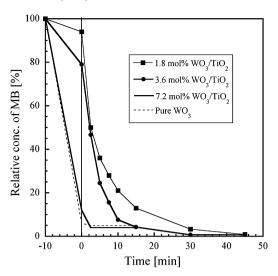


Fig. 12. PCA of the WO_3/TiO_2 nanoparticles with increasing concentration of WO_3 . Nearly complete adsorption of MB has been observed in the dark for the sample containing >7.2 mol% WO_3 .

has been reported by several authors. Li et al. [19] reported the synthesis of WO₃/TiO₂ by sol–gel method and at 1 mol% WO₃ maximum improvement of the PCA is observed. In contrast Kwon et al. [18] reported the synthesis of WO₃/TiO₂ by wetness impregnation method and maximum improvement of PCA was found at 3 mol% WO₃ and agrees well with the results of the present study.

4. Conclusions

WO₃/TiO₂ nanoparticles with controlled amount of Wdoping have been successfully synthesized by flame spray synthesis at designated oxygen-to-fuel ratios λ . The coordination of WO_x species changed from tetrahedral to octahedral with increasing concentration of WO₃. At a WO₃ concentration of <3.6 mol% and high λ amorphous WO_x species formed on the surface of W-doped TiO₂ substrate particles. This surface layer enhances the acidity of the particles and as a result improves their photocatalytic activity for the degradation of methylene blue significantly compared to commercial P25-TiO₂. Presence of crystalline WO₃ as a separate phase or reduced WO_x species though increases the adsorption of methylene blue and the resultant catalytic performance is poor. It is proven in the present study that, at a given concentration of WO₃, the density and the quality (Brønsted vs. Lewis) of surface acid sites and therewith the adsorption of a reactant/ pollutant at the nanomaterial and its catalytic performance can be influenced by varying the process parameters of the FSS, which has not been reported to date.

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